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ABSTRACT

Very little research has been carried out on the extent to which educational television is recognized as part of the curriculum in nursery and infant schools and how it facilitates learning in young children. The aim of the curriculum at this level should be to offer experiences to children that, through conceptualization, will develop in them the understanding to cope sensibly with life, and explain their world to them. Surveys have found that the majority of teachers regard educational television as a "view and follow-up" phenomenon with little or no relationship to other activities in the classroom, although they do regard the stories, songs, and poems presented on children's television as a stimulus to encourage children to read and an aid in developing their language skills. Research on learning from television identifies two forms of knowledge that could come about through watching television--relational understanding and instrumental understanding. Findings also suggest that relational understanding (cognitive learning), which requires interpretation and analysis of program content, was generally beyond the capabilities of children in this age group without some interaction with an adult, e.g., the teacher. Teachers must therefore be mediators between children and educational television broadcasts to make the experience meaningful. A more ideal situation would be the use of video recordings that can be suited to children's needs and used to supplement classroom activities. Teachers should evaluate whether they are providing adequately for children's needs with their use of educational television. (29 references) (CGD)

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Dr Ernest Choat

CHILDREN, TELEVISION AND LEARNING IN NURSERY AND INFANTS' SCHOOLS

Paper Presented to the 1986 International Television Studies Conference

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Educational television and its function in nursery and infants' schools is a neglected issue. Very little research has been carried out in Britain and only a few surveys undertaken elsewhere, the main source being the USA with emphasis on young children's skill acquisition through series such as Sesame Street and the Electric Company. Furthermore, the matter has not warranted a great deal of attention in recent official reports in this country. Although Bayliss (1986) reports that the Commons Select Committee on Education showed an interest by visiting the BBC to discuss the provision of educational broadcasting, the Primary School Survey (1978) made only passing remarks, the Cockcroft Report (1982) merely added that mathematics programmes can form the basis of a course or supplement other work, the First School Survey (1982) criticized the teachers' use of television but did not make suggestions for better use while the medium was mentioned briefly by the Schools Council (1983). A similar situation applies to books about nursery and primary school curricula and local education authority curriculum guidelines; educational television is rarely commented upon.

It could be contended that the influencial sources are not bothered unduly about educational television so why should others be concerned with its effectiveness in the classroom. Such an assertion can be readily dismissed. Most infants' schools now have a television receiver and many nursery schools have access to the facility, while a large percentage of teachers in both types of schools have a video recorder avaiable for use. The extent to which the medium is actually used is reported by Choat, Griffin and Hobart (1986a) in a survey of two hundred and fifty nine teachers in seventeen leas in England and Wales. Ninety one per cent of these nursery and infants' school teachers claimed that they used educational television to assist with children's language development, thirty seven per cent with mathematical development and eighty four per cent for general interest or topic work

and, in a separate investigation of nursery teachers only, three quarters of the teachers indicated they would use the facility if it were available to them. These figures suggest that the use of educational television should be a major concern when considering the education of children up to the age of seven years. In other words, it is necessary to take into account the degree to which educational television is recognised as part of the curriculum and the extent to which it facilitates learning in young children.

The philosophy of primary education has undergone radical changes in recent years (Choat 1978 pp.46-48). Previously the curriculum was subject-centred with children's well-being a secondary consideration but the position is now reversed with a child-centred approach that pays regard to physical, social, emotional and intellectual development. The curriculum is no longer regarded as the timetabling of subjects but as embracing aims, content, method, organisation, purpose and evaluation. These new emphases have led to a relaxation from rigidity to flexibility in primary schools and instead of closed classrooms allowed for open complexes to permit team and co-operative teaching and organisations such as the integrated day, while integration of curriculum content through projects, topics and centres of interest have been introduced. Nevertheless, although flexibility allows for recognition of the child as an individual, provisions have to be made if curriculum objectives are to be met. Apart from the organisation aspects, other deliberations are necessary to decide how teaching is to be implemented. Activities to encourage learning have to be assessed for their appropriateness to each child. Systematized planning is essential if activities and learning opportunities are to be at the pace and level of mental development of the children. Consideration must also be given to the aspects of curriculum content which are relevant to specific children. The appropriate time for introducing certain activities to encourage development and the acquisition of particular skills must be assessed. The teaching methods which will enable certain experiences have to be determined. Decisions are necessary on when to continue with individual or group learning or when to assemble as a class. Account has to be taken of

whether subjects can be integrated successfully or the desirability of specialization for certain subjects. If integration is adopted, some degree of balance should be sought otherwise children will be deprived of certain subjects and areas of learning.

Compared to primary education, the principles of nursery education have barely changed. The pioneer of nursery education in Britain, Margaret McMillan, saw the aims as an identification of social effort so that children could begin infants' school with their constitutions unimpaired and with their bodies attuned to the mental, moral and physical education which is the primary function of school to impart. Nursery school was not a substitute but a supplement to home. It endeavoured to avoid academic subjects, formal work and timetables and contrived to train children's minds by encouraging and directing them along lines which led to harmonious development. This involved careful teaching of language to develop speaking faculties, overcoming shyness and fostering social relationships, while simple handwork and physical exercises were recommended to develop children's bodies and to teach them control of their muscles. James (1981), when enumerating the aims of present day nursery education, does not differ drastically from Margaret McMillan. The welfare of the child, his individuality and social, emotional, physical and intellectual development remain the priorities.

It is necessary therefore to consider why certain things are taught in infants' schools and to contemplate the purpose of the curriculum. Choat (1980a pp.21-24) maintains that the aim should be to offer experiences to children that through conceptualization will develop in them the understanding to cope sensibly with life. A further purpose is that the taught curriculum should explain their world to children. Educational television can play an important role in this purpose providing its use is such that the children are able to make the necessary interpretations. This view is supported by the IBA (1978) who state that both teachers and pupils gain much more from educational broadcasts when programmes are used as part of a carefully planned curriculum rather than when they are used as casual additions. Robinson (1981) also feels that educational

broadcasting should be fitted into a curricula framework so that it is seen to be vital and relevant and not a desirable but disposable extra while Oakley (1981) adds that,as most schools use television broadcasts as a resource to aid the development of language and reading skills in young children, it goes without saying that the material should be used in such a way that maximum involvement, learning and enjoyment take place. Within the nursery, teachers have a responsibility to create a challenging and stimulating environment to encourage the children to explore and discover the world for themselves and to offer new activities within the secure framework of a regular routine. Teachers should seek to provide a succession of activities extending from the home and incorporate a degree of flexibility to allow for play as well as the challenge of problem-solving. It is within the context of these principles that television in nursery education should be considered. The crucial factor which determines how a teacher uses television with young children is her interpretation of curriculum: how she systematizes use of the medium in the provisions she makes for the children. Within this premise she should also consider what the children are able to take from television and her role as mediator between the television receiver and the children.

Choat, Griffin and Hobart (op cit, 1986b) however concluded that only a few teachers were using educational television effectively. These teachers were incorporating it into the the curriculum, following-on with children rather than following-up, taking small groups of children to watch programmes or parts of programmes and, when video recording facilities were available, using the machine to preview, stop/start, freeze frame, play back, play forward, etc. Not all of these few teachers were adopting all the practices. Some were using only one or sometimes two of the video recorder's facilities. Only three teachers were implementing the possibilities offered by educational television to the full extent.

Educational television was regarded by the majority of the teachers as a 'view and follow-up' phenomenon that had little or no relationship, except fortuitously, with the other activities or work the children were pursuing. There was not

a great deal of evidence of preparation before broadcasts, but post-broadcast procedures were more disturbing. Direct follow-up appeared to be the norm and discussion on what had occurred in a programme the most popular form. This usually centred around what the teachers had perceived in the programme and what they imagined the children had perceived. With the exception of the nursery teachers, at least a half of the other teachers followed-up the discussion with written work, which frequently consisted of completing a worksheet, and slightly less with art and craft activities. Thereby, irrespective of the type of series, follow-up was a structured exercise with a formal slant in the majority of cases; especially with the older children.

The teachers regarded stories, songs and poems as an integral part of educational television for the added interest which they gave to programmes, as a stimulus to encourage children to read, an assistance to acquiring listening skills, sequencing, sense of rhythm, concentration and memorisation, an enrichment to children's imagination, a significance between the spoken and written word and, above all, an enjoyment. They insisted that their use of educational television was for language development and when the use of programme material was examined this did appear to be so with the nursery teachers but once children reached infants' reception class language skills seemed to over-ride language development. This is not surprising for when Thomas (1985 pp.15-16) investigated ILEA primary schools he reported an over-emphasis being placed on skills. He stated that schools were undemanding when they concentrated too much on skills and the achievements earned were at too high a price in relation to the rest of the curriculum.

There was a general consensus that educational television should show mathematics as exciting, practical, implicit in the environment and a common language. Thus, the medium was regarded as a means to support and extend activities begun by the teacher. But by virtue that a number of teachers used mathematics series for language development suggested that emphasis was on language rather than practical activities to acquire mathematics and educational television was being used

for incorrect reasons by labouring under the false impression that young children acquire mathematics through language, and educational television was reinforcing this. Furthermore, most teachers relied on a structured follow-up with stipulated tasks related to a programme. The emphasis seemed to be instrumental learning of mathematics with the teachers rather unsure of the learning outcomes they anticipated. Proficiency in number through specific teaching appeared to be the main concern with a disregard for patterns of relationship. Again, this attitude is not surprising. A survey on mathematics teaching by Welsh HMI (1986) in a group of primary schools concluded that there was considerable uncertainty regarding new approaches in some classrooms and in others work remained rather narrowly focussed on practising computational skills.

A large number of general interest programmes were used as a basis for topic work, especially amongst the older children. However, this was accounted for mainly by one particular series or fortuitous use when a programme happened to fit in with work the teachers were doing. This occurred frequently during Hallowe'en and Christmas. There were instances of a particular programme providing the stimulus for topic work but these were infrequent and had not been prepared beforehand. Although general interest series did tend to produce more variable activities than language or mathematics series, the direct follow-up was used in the majority of instances. This had no connection with what was being taught otherwise. Topic work based on a specific unit did produce some varied and enterprising work, but in some cases the suggestions in the teachers' booklets were followed closely and this resulted in a series of follow-up lessons.

Possession of a video recorder had little effect on how programmes were viewed. The facility was used as a timetable convenience for programmes to be played back at times which suited the teacher, and seen continuously from beginning to end by the children. Video recordings therefore were treated as if they were off-air broadcasts and for both means the majority of children were taken as a class, joined with another class, and sometimes with other classes, to watch programmes.

Class viewing predominated when watching mathematics and general interest programmes with approximately three quarters of the teachers following the practice while less than a half class viewed language programmes. But the situation changed drastically when mass viewing was taken into account for this was the way children were assembled for viewing language programmes by fifty five per cent of the teachers compared to thirteen per cent for mathematics and twenty three per cent for general interest programmes.

These findings by Choat, Griffin and Hobart (op cit) indicate that the majority of teachers of young children are not considering educational television when it is used as a curriculum component, and are giving insufficient attention to learning and its relationship with television. Although the teachers insist that they are treating the children as individuals, such does not appear to be happening once they become concerned with educational television. The teachers' attitudes imply that television can teach and children learn from watching it, but little is known if this is the case. Bates (1981, 1983) puts this into perspective when he asks whether the process of learning from television is different from learning from other media. He considers there is a need to distinguish teaching (the selection, presentation, representation and prior structuring of knowledge and experiences by the teacher) from learning (the perception, intepretation and relating of knowledge or experiences by the learner). Media, which present and represent knowledge, are used by teachers as ways of presenting knowledge, but media affect learners; a medium relates in different ways to teachers (and teaching) and learners (and learning).

Although Bates makes this vital distinction between teaching and learning, there remains a great deal of confusion as to what writers are implying when they refer to learning from television. They rarely specify what they mean. Choat (1980a p.92, 1981) states that learning is a measurable change in an individual that involves either the acquisition of some new body of information (cognitive learning) or a shift in values attitudes, interest or motivation (non-cognitive learning). Consequently, learning may cover many different activities

irrespective of having the common characteristic of a change in behaviour. According to Thoules (1969), these may include the acquisition of information by logical remembering, the acquisition of certain bodily skills, the acquisition of intellectual skills and the acquisition of a certain group of desirable or obligatory attitudes that include aesthetic, social and moral attitudes.

Choat (1984) maintains that young children's learning emanates from the kind of experiences they are subjected to. All experiences result in some form of learning but the quality of learning is important to teachers therefore the quality of children's experiences in school should be important also. By the nature of her role, a teacher influences children's experiences and learning when she determines the environment to cater for the needs and capabilities of children. According to Olsen (1954), this choice falls within four levels of experience:-

(1) Community experience: first hand learning through immediate sensory contacts with the environment
(2) Expressive activities ; a child's interpretations of experience, ideas, appreciations and insights
(3) Audio visual material: vicarious experience through mechanical representation of reality
(4) Written and spoken words: a child's shorthand way of transmitting, sharing and citicising experience

The first 'avenues of experience' are personal, first-hand experience through the learner's physical, biological and social environment and the latter two approaches indirect or vicarious experience. On this basis, learning proceeds in stages from physical experience to abstractions, i.e. full sensory contact (community experience), personal translation (expressive activities), representation of reality (audio visual material) and abstract symbols (written and spoken words). Although young children rely mostly on personal, first hand experience to learn, all four 'avenues of learning' are presented to them in school. Under the impression that the children understand and can translate the meaning, teachers constantly use spoken words as the 'avenue of learning'

and, as the prior evidence suggests, on other occasions educational television programmes are provided as a stimulus to learning. This raises certain fundamental questions. How do young children translate what they hear and see on an educational television programme for learning to be brought about? Can young children rationalise and deduce to form abstractions and thereby learn from an abstract medium such as television? In other words, the issue is whether young children do learn from television and, if so, what is the type of learning?

Children looking at a television receiver are not necessarily processing the information which is being portrayed. Many adults assume that the children are interpreting as they do themselves, but Bates (Bliss, Goater, Jones and Bates 1983) questions whether the kind of thinking stimulated or reinforced by the way information is coded and presented on television is closer to one of Piaget's stages of thought development than another. He suggests that this seems closer to the concrete operational stage rather than the formal operational stage, but Choat (1984) asks what about educational television for those children at the pre-operational stage, i.e. children up to six or seven years of age in terms of mental development?

It appears that children are increasingly able to focus on important or central information in a television programme as their thought processes develop. Collins et al (1978) indicated increasing attention to content central to a plot throughout the primary school years. Calvert and Watkins (1979) concluded that four to five year olds recalled more incidental than central information while the opposite held true for eight to nine year olds. Williams (1981) however stated that whatever the theoretical perspective, it was clear that much of what is portrayed on television is not understood by young children. He acknowledged an increase in learning of both central and peripheral material up to adolescence, but emphasised that there have been very few studies of children under the age of about eight years. This is important because (a) young children's viewing patterns are such that it is difficult to imagine them learning much information central to a theme or plot, (b) young children are unable to understand sequencing, motives and

consequences, (c) television broadcasts for pre-operational children are detached from actuality until translated into experience by some other object, event, person, etc. and (d) Williams' (ibid) contention that children's learning is affected both by content and experience allied to the cognitive capacity to understand not only the content but also the techniques of the medium.

A parallel to learning from television can be drawn from learning mathematics. Implicit within the acquisition of mathematics is the distinction between learning with understanding and rote learning(Choat 1980a p.33). This is exemplified by Skemp (1976) who defines two categories of understanding in mathematics - relational understanding and instrumental understanding. Relational understanding is not only knowing what to do but why as it includes rationalization of the underlying mathematical relationships and properties. Instrumental understanding is when children and teachers think that understanding has been acquired if the children are able to obtain correct answers to a given category of questions without knowing why the method works. As a result, there are two kinds of mathematics- relational mathematics and instrumental mathematics. The subject matter may be the same but the resulting two kinds of knowledge are different.

It seems therefore that there are two forms of knowledge that could come about through watching television - relational undertanding and instrumental understanding. Although television itself cannot teach, relational understanding results from a child's ability to interpret and rationalise programme content. On the other hand, instrumental understanding is assumed when children and teachers think that children have understood what has been portrayed in a programme if isolated questions can be answered by the children. In other words, relational understanding requires children to analyse programme content whereas instrumental understanding demands no more than passive viewing to repeat exactly what has been seen. On this basis, television viewing can be classed into two categories - relational television to encourage cognitive learning and instrumental television to instil non-cognitive learning. The

evidence quoted earlier of how the medium was being used by nursery and infants' school teachers suggests that instrumental television is the most common practice. Apart from the intentions with language development in the nursery, the emphases on structured and direct follow-up, class and mass viewing and concentration on skill acquisition indicate a bias towards instrumental television.

Bearing in mind the prior deliberations on what pre-operational children can take from a television broadcast or video play back, it is arguable whether these children are able to diagnose programme material to acquire relational understanding. These deliberations suggest that young children at the pre-operational stage of mental and thought development do not fully comprehend the sequence and motives of television programmes, have fewer analytical abilities and have insufficient experience of the world to interpret, understand and critically appreciate the content. However, an adult watching with them can have an impact on their understanding of programmes. Corder-Bolz (1980) even goes to the extent of stating that as parents and other adults verbalize their interpretations and evaluations of television programmesto children so the children will internalize these critical viewing skills for television to ultimately play a more positive part in their lives.

It would appear therefore that there are cognitive levels of development related to how children interpret what they see on a television screen for relational understanding to materialise. Again, a parallel can be made with mathematics. Choat (1980b) distinguished five levels of cognitive/mathematical development - discrimination, order, application, operation and extension - and these five levels are translated to apply to levels of development in relational understanding from television.

Discrimination

Children associate with the television picture to analyse the events taking place. They develop awareness of the images and actions to distinguish how these relate to themselves, the size and relativity of the images, and then interpret the shapes, sizes, positions and movements that the images display.

Order

Children logically connect sequences in a television programme as each sequence is allied to points of reference.

Application

Children begin to abstract to apply their interpretations on what has been viewed. They no longer view passively but are able to give their impressions of the programme content. Mental activity enables them to abstract and conceptualise to code their interpretations of events, and use these internalizations as a symbol system.

Operation

Children take represented action seen in a television broadcast, interpret it and give their impressions of likely consequences or possible continuation. The television picture has been symbolised to become a means on which to operate to develop further understanding and knowledge.

Extension

The further understanding and knowledge derived from a television broadcast is acted upon to be applied in non-related circumstances for analysis and problem solving in the abstract.

Pre-operational children therefore would be expected to be at the lower levels of development, and, in this connection, two small surveys of children's reactions to educational television were conducted by Choat and Griffin (1986). In the first survey, twenty one children between the ages of 6.6 and 7.4 years were tested for their comprehension of a programme broadcast in the Seeing and Doing series on Canals. The programme was shown continuously by video play back to groups of five or six children who were questioned individually afterwards by their head teachers or the writer. Certain conclusions were able to be drawn. Most of the children were at the discrimination level in their television viewing. They were unable to diagnose logically from the information given in the play back or to order or apply. The responses were isolated impressions, often removed from the basis of the programme. The children had not acquired relational understanding of canal boat life or realised the importance of canals. Most of them referred to narrow boats

as canals and, in fact, they had the impression that the programme was about boats and how to make a model boat. The presenter's description of how canals were constructed was lost on the children. This implies that not only has the programme content to be interpreted but also the presenter's language which is meaningless if unrelated to children's prior experiences. The children emerged from their passive state only when they were awakened by isolated aspects or events which they particularly liked. Most of these instances were unrelated to the programme theme, e.g. the presenter sitting on a wall, going under things in case a spider dropped down and the horse's bonnet. Something extraordinary or stimulating had to happen for the children's attention to be held. This was instanced with a sequence of legging a narrow boat through a tunnel for this led to a great deal of fantasy and inspiration.

Twenty five six and seven year olds, split into three groups, formed the sample for the second survey. Each week, over a ten week period, a story was read to Group A and the same story was seen on television by Groups B and C. Whereas Group B were prepared for the story and appropriate'follow-up' undertaken, no such interaction took place with Group C who merely watched the story on television. All of the children were tested for their comprehension of the first and last stories. The largest gains were made by the television groups with the children in Group B showing the greatest improvement in classification ability and application of the story in domains beyond the confines of the immediate story structure. Compared to their reaction to factual information, it seemed that pre-operational children can understand the basis of a story told on television provided the story is suitable to their level of development. However, improved comprehension did occur when the story was interpreted and rationalised by the teacher.

The findings from these two surveys reiforce the prior contentions. Cognitive learning was the prerogative of the Canal programme, but this demanded relational understanding if the producer's intentions were to be interpreted. This was beyond the children's capabilities, but it reflects the situation in many classrooms when teachers are gathering children collectively to watch television on the assumption that the children will remember what

they have watched and be able to interpret what is implied in the programme. On the other hand, story does not require a great deal of interpretation. The narrative is mainly self-explanatory and instrumental understanding will suffice for details to be remembered. Nevertheless, interpretation materialises when the teacher assists the children to discriminate and order. As Choat and Griffin (loc cit) indicate, the children's reactions and responses suggest that to try to convey a message on television, or in fact to try to convey a particular block of information, to children at the pre-operational level of development without adult interaction is pointless. The children are unable to process the information and cannot interpret what is being portrayed. The situation is also affected by the experiences which the children take to the television screen. This implies, as stated previously, that children's learning is affected both by content and experience, allied to their cognitive capacity to understand not only the content but also the techniques of television.

The recognition and acceptance that pre-operational children are individuals who think differently from children at other levels of mental development warrants a fresh appraisal of their relationship with educational television. This implies that the potential of the medium with nursery and infants' school children cannot be gauged unless its function is realised by teachers who must appreciate that they are the mediators between the children and an educational television broadcast. The children rely on their teacher's expertise if a broadcast is to be meaningful to them. This suggests that teachers of young children have two important functions when using educational television: to provide a framework to enable relational understanding of what is viewed, and to be aware of the limitations and distortions of the medium and how these may affect the children. Educational television therefore should not be isolated from other curriculum considerations. An off-air broadcast or video play back should be part of the children's normal school day. It should have an integral place in a teacher's provisions and slot into the intended activities for the children.

These deliberations on principles indicate that nursery and infants' school teachers should evaluate whether they are adequately providing for children's needs through their existing practices with educational television. The medium should be fitted to children according to individual needs rather than children being fitted to educational television as appears to be the common practice at present with whole class and mass viewing. Nevertheless, some sympathy can be extended to the teachers for they are often restricted by the conditions and facilities available to them. Only one television receiver in the school, one aerial point in the hall or somebody else's classroom, timetabling of when television can be used, etc. limit the use an enterprising teacher may wish to make of educational television.

The medium becomes a different proposition when a teacher has access to a video recorder. She no longer has to rely on information in the teachers' booklet for what will appear in programmes but can preview them herself to select which parts are applicable, have prior knowledge of which aspects she may have to clarify, be aware of the elements she has to interpret, and be prepared for vocabulary which may present difficulties. Then she can select the children for whom certain extracts are applicable - individual or groups of children instead of a class or mass viewing. When playing back the video recording she can use the stop/start control for meaningful discussion or to ask the children something or to repeat an episode, and even freeze frame to elicit particular details. By adopting this procedure, a teacher is controlling television rather than being obedient to the control of an off-air broadcast. A different approach to her teaching is instilled with television being used to supplement the children's activities. The preparation-broadcast - follow-up routine is replaced by television as a component within her teaching methods. Nevertheless, there may be some occasions for whole class viewing and straight through play backs, i.e. when listening to a story, beginning a topic, etc., but in the majority of cases television would be fitted to children's needs.

Changes are necessary therefore in attitudes: from inspectors; teachers' centre wardens, college lecturers, head teachers, teachers and producers towards educational television if the medium is to be incorporated into the curriculum to enhance possible learning for nursery and infants' school children. The medium has been treated as something teachers will adopt and adapt to in the course of their teaching careers. Without guidance and awareness of the implications surrounding the use of educational television, students resort to what they feel is the way to use it when they become teachers - merely taking large groups of children to watch programmes. This situation has not been corrected for the majority of teachers as very few in-service courses have been held at teachers' centres or colleges or sponsored by the DES. Despite developments in information technology, the use of educational television has been largely ignored on the assumption that television is a simple thing to use. The existing situation reveals an urgent need for a vastly increased in-service programme. Head teachers too have a responsibility to evaluate the provisions made for educational television in the construction of the curriculum. Some may contend that the medium is a bonus to the hard worked teacher as a resource in addition to the school curriculum. This implies that two curricula may exist - one imposed by the school and another encouraged by educational television. Within these considerations, there are opportunities for producers to embark on more ambitious and enterprising material than is currently being broadcast. Both content and structure should align with what pre-operational children can cope and provide for all aspects of their development. The material should have some basis whereby the children can relate to past experience - all new knowledge emanates from existing knowledge. In other words, the content should not be restricted to a programme format but be flexible for teachers to use as they require, especially with the use of a video recorder.

Alongside these desirable changes is the need for adequate resources to be made available to teachers. It is essential, if young children are to benefit from watching educational television, that their teachers should be provided with the appropriate equipment to enable learning through relational understanding to come about. This means that schools should

be equipped with sufficient television receivers, video recorders and other material to meet their needs. Financial assistance should be made available to assist with the purchase of new material and equipment when developments occur. This has been feasible with the micro-computer and educational television, if used correctly and wisely, is of equal importance. Its full potential in young children's learning has not been sufficiently explored and this will not come about until it is used with greater imagination by teachers, but they must have the appropriate apparatus and material.

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